

Terminal Proterozoic cyanobacterial blooms and phosphogenesis
documented by the Doushantuo granular phosphorites II: microbial diversity
and C isotopes

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Abstract

An unprecedented period of phosphogenesis, along with massive deposition of black shales, major perturbations in the global carbon cycle and the rise of atmospheric oxygen, occurred in the terminal Proterozoic in the aftermath of the Marinoan glaciation. Although causal links between these processes have been postulated, evidence remains challenging. Correlated *in situ* microanalyses of granular phosphorites from the Ediacaran Doushantuo Formation in Yichang, South China, suggested that cyanobacteria and associated extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) might have promoted aggregated granule growth and subsequent phosphatization (She et al., 2013). Here, we present new paleontological data for the Doushantuo phosphorites from Yichang, which, combined with Raman microspectroscopy and carbon isotope data, further document links between the biology of cyanobacteria and phosphogenesis. Mapping of microfossils in thin

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section shows that most phosphatic granules contain microfossils that are dominated by colonies of *Myxococcoides*, along with several filamentous genera generally considered to represent cyanobacterial sheaths. In addition, the phosphorites and associated rocks have $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values in the range of -26.0‰ to -29.7‰ VPDB, consistent with photoautotrophic carbon fixation with the Rubisco enzyme. Close association of phosphorites with the Marinoan tillites in stratigraphic level supports a genetic link between deglaciation and phosphogenesis, at least for the Doushantuo occurrence. Our new data suggest that major cyanobacterial blooms probably took place in the terminal Proterozoic, which might have resulted in rapid scavenging of bioavailable phosphorus and massive accumulations of organic matter (OM). Within a redox-stratified intra-shelf basin, the OM-bound phosphorus could have been liberated by microbial sulfate reduction and other anaerobic metabolisms and subsequently concentrated by Fe-redox pumping below the chemocline. Upwelling of the bottom waters or upward fluctuation of the chemocline might have brought P-enriched waters to the photic zone, where it was again scavenged by cyanobacteria through their EPS to be subsequently precipitated as francolite. The feedbacks between enhanced continental weathering, cyanobacterial blooms, carbon burial, and accelerated phosphorus cycle thus controlled the marine biogeochemical changes, which led to further oxygenation of the atmosphere and oceans, ultimately paving the way for the rise of metazoans.

Keywords: Doushantuo Formation, Microfossils, Carbon isotopes, Cyanobacterial blooms, Phosphorus cycle

1. Introduction

Worldwide phosphogenic events took place in the immediate aftermath of the Neoproterozoic glaciation period, resulting in some of the largest phosphorus deposits in Asia, Australia, Africa and South America (Cook, 1992; Cook and Shergold, 1984). As phosphorus is an essential nutrient and an important driving and regulating force behind biological productivity (Redfield,

1958; Föllmi, 1996), massive deposition of phosphate is generally related to biological accumulation of excess phosphorous. Models have suggested that enhanced post-glacial weathering might have led to blooms of primary producers in the oceans (Kirschvink et al., 2000), which in turn would have promoted phosphogenesis (Papineau, 2010). Direct links between biological activity and phosphogenesis have long been proposed (Föllmi, 1996, and references therein). Sulfur isotopes of framboidal pyrite and organic biomarkers from modern phosphorites have documented the importance of bacterial sulfate reduction in the formation of modern phosphatic sediments from the Peruvian and California coast (Arning et al., 2009; Berndmeyer et al., 2012). Other studies have shown that sulfur-oxidizing bacteria can release orthophosphate into pore waters where it accumulates and rapidly precipitated as apatite (e.g., Schulz & Schulz, 2005; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Brock & Schulz-Vogt, 2011). Cyanobacteria have not been specifically targeted in studies of phosphogenesis despite the fact that primary production in today's oceans is provided by a consortium of eukaryotic microalgae and cyanobacteria.

The Doushantuo Formation (ca. 635–551 Ma) in South China is well known because it contains exceptionally well-preserved fossil evidence for putative earliest embryos (Xiao et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2004), which have been variably interpreted as thiomargarita-like sulfur bacteria (Bailey et al., 2007), as algae (Xue et al., 1999) and as encysting protists (Hulttgren et al., 2011). Adult metazoans (Zhu et al., 2008), multicellular algae and acanthomorph acritarchs have also been reported (Xiao, 2004; Xiao et al., 2004, 2014; Yin et al., 2007). Moreover, the Doushantuo Formation preserves a chemostratigraphic record of significant perturbations of the carbon and sulfur cycles that correlate with global tectonic and climate changes and oxygenation of the atmosphere and the oceans (Och and Shields-Zhou, 2012, and references therein). Thus, the Doushantuo Formation presents a unique window for understanding feedbacks between global chemical changes and biological evolution at the dawn of animal life. While the evolution of

metazoans has been the focus of most studies, the biogeochemical significance of other organisms, including primary producers, has received less attention. The prior recognition of abundant well preserved in situ microfossils from the Doushantuo phosphorites (Zhongying, 1985; Zhou et al., 2005; She et al., 2013) hints at an intimate relation between primary phosphatization and fossilization of microorganisms. In a recent study, we suggested that cyanobacteria and associated extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) might have promoted accretionary granule growth and provided nucleation sites for rapid crystallization of apatite in the Doushantuo environment (She et al., 2013). Now, we present results of detailed systematic mapping of microfossils in thin section and Raman microspectroscopy and carbon isotope data which suggest that, while other microorganisms such as sulfur bacteria may have played a role in phosphogenesis, cyanobacteria also played important roles in phosphorus cycling and phosphogenesis. This study favors a biological origin for the Doushantuo phosphorites and suggests links between biology, the changing environment, and phosphogenesis at this critical time of Earth history.

2. Sample description

Samples of black shales and phosphorites (designated with prefix "TP", Fig. 1) were collected from and near major phosphorus-bearing horizons in the Doushantuo Formation (member II) in the Taopinghe mining area, north of Yichang City (Fig. 1a and b in She et al., 2013). The phosphorus-bearing sequence overlies basal, cap dolostones. It is characterized by interbedded black potassic shale and phosphorite with gradual increasing dolostones upsection (Fig. 1c in She et al., 2013). The phosphorites are mostly black to brownish banded rocks with granular textures that are visible to the naked eye. When observed with a petrographic microscope, individual granules display distinct oncoid-like zoning. They are composed primarily of cryptocrystalline apatite although minor microcrystalline apatite, quartz and carbonate minerals are present as cement or later replacement (She et al., 2013).

Another cherty dolomicrite sample (YG0914, Fig. 1) was collected from the uppermost of cap carbonate (member I) of the Doushantuo Formation near Liantuo Village (GPS coordinates: 30°51'12.5"N, 111°09'11.5"E), ~20 km NW of Yichang. The sample is mainly composed of dolomicrite and is generally brownish grey to dark grey. Black chert nodules are common in this horizon and are often rimmed by brownish "rusted" dolomicrite. There appears to be some chaotic layering in the dolomite matrix which roughly encompass the chert nodules (Fig. 1) that points to an early diagenetic origin for the chert.

According to previously published data, the age of the studied section is constrained to be between 635 and 614 Ma (Condon et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2009), corresponding to the first 20 Myr of the Ediacaran Period. Paleogeographic reconstructions show that the majority of the Doushantuo Formation in the Yangtze platform (the NW part of the South China Craton) was deposited in a restricted basin on a rimmed carbonate shelf (Jiang et al., 2011). Sedimentological and petrographic data have shown that the Yichang phosphorites and black shales were deposited in relatively low energy, shallow water settings (Zhou et al., 2005; She et al., 2013).

3. Methods

3.1 Petrography and documentation of microfossils

Observation and documentation of polished thin sections were performed with an Olympus BX51 optical microscope equipped with a mechanical stage. Identification of microfossils was based on morphological criteria including shape, size and wall structure. For all examined thin sections, important targets including interesting textures and microfossils were documented with exact locations marked on maps of the thin sections and pictures taken for each at 40X, 100X, 400X and 1000X magnifications. Systematic documentation of microfossils in thin section TP0901S was conducted by scanning along linear vertical (Y axis) transects across the thin section at 400X magnification. Each successive transect was separated by displacing the slide

1 ~200 μm along the X axis of the microscope stage, which provide a complete cover of the
2 examined area. Occurrences of different microfossils were marked on the map by different shapes
3 or colors, with pictures taken for each (1379 photos generated). Size frequency distributions of
4 coccoidal microfossils were obtained by measuring the diameters of 15 to 20 cells for well-
5 preserved colonies in five thin sections. Immersion oil was used only on one thin section for high
6 resolution imaging after Raman micro-spectroscopy.

7 *3.2 Raman micro-spectroscopy*

8 Confocal laser Raman micro-spectroscopy was performed with a WITec alpha 300R system
9 equipped with a 532 nm laser with output power maintained at ~5 mW. Raman hyperspectral
10 scans were performed under a 100X objective (N.A. = 0.9) with a 50 μm diameter optic fiber and
11 collected on a Peltier-cooled EMCCD detector. Spatial resolution was ~360 nm/pixel and spectral
12 resolution was ~0.1 cm^{-1} . Individual spectra shown in this work represent averages of selected
13 regions with similar spectral characteristics. Detailed descriptions of this method can be found in
14 Bernard et al. (2008). Raman hyperspectral analyses were performed 3-10 microns below the thin
15 section surface, therefore ruling out potential artifacts induced by polishing or surface
16 contamination. Raman spectra of different minerals were compared with spectra from the online
17 database <http://rruff.info/>.

18 *3.3 Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry*

19 Slabs of phosphorite and black shale were polished with silicon carbide paper and then
20 cleaned by ultrasonication, repeatedly rinsed with deionized distilled water and dried. Slabs were
21 stored in Al foil pre-muffled at 600 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 2 hours until analysis. They were then micro-drilled
22 with a 2.0 mm diameter SiC drill bit in areas with the fewest pores and cracks to obtain pristine
23 rock powders (Fig. 1). For carbon isotope analyses of total carbon (TC), 3-5 mg of whole-rock
24 powders were weighed in Ag capsules pre-muffled at 600 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 2 hours. For carbon isotope

1 analyses of total organic carbon (TOC), 10-25 mg of powders were gently acidified in Ag
2 capsules using ultrapure 6N HCl (Sequanal Grade, Thermal Scientific) to remove carbonate
3 minerals.

4 Carbon isotope analyses were performed with an ECS 4010 elemental analyzer (EA) linked
5 to a ThermoFisher Delta V Plus IRMS through a Conflo III interface as previously described
6 (Papineau et al., 2010). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are reported as per mil (‰) deviation from V-PDB.
7 Uncertainties determined by multiple measurements of NBS-22, USGS-40 and USGS-41 were
8 better than 0.10‰ (1σ , $n = 27$), 0.14‰ (1σ , $n = 14$) and 0.37‰ (1σ , $n = 8$), respectively. Analyses
9 of 0.13 to 0.20 mg of organic carbon from a compositionally similar standard (Peru mud; $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$
10 = -19.95‰, TOC = 6.7%wt) gave a 1σ reproducibility better than ± 0.3 ‰ ($n = 5$) for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
11 $\pm 1.1\%$ ($n = 5$) for total organic carbon (TOC). Muffled Ag boats contained less carbon than the
12 detection limit (Papineau et al., 2011).

13 **4. Results**

14 **4.1 Abundance and systematic petrographic mapping of microfossils**

15 Microfossils were identified on the basis that they are, 1) morphologically congruent with
16 cellular microorganisms, 2) diverse in mode of occurrence, 3) organic-walled, and 4) directly
17 comparable to previously reported microfossils. The main morphological categories include
18 spheroidal to ellipsoidal unicells and colonies, non-septate filaments (tubes), septate filaments,
19 and coiled filaments. Microfossils occur almost exclusively within the medium sand-sized
20 granules except that thin filaments (width $< 0.5 \mu\text{m}$) occasionally are present in the inter-granular
21 cement. Although microfossils are abundantly preserved in the Doushantuo granular phosphorites,
22 their quality of preservation varies considerably. In many microfossils fine structural details are
23 preserved while others are obscured by degradation.

Thin section TP0901S, with exceptionally well-preserved microfossils, was systematically mapped to determine if mat fabrics were structurally preserved and to statistically characterize different morphotypes. Mapping of microfossils yielded a density of ~300 recognizable colonies (each colony counted as one) or solitary microfossil per cm² (in a standard 30 μm thin section) (Fig. 2). Colonial *Myxococcoides* (Fig. 3), including both relatively well-preserved and degraded forms, accounted for 50% of approximately 700 counted occurrences (Table 1, Fig. 4). As *Myxococcoides* is exclusively colonial, this percentage represents the minimum relative abundance. Less abundant taxa include, in descending order of abundance (occurrence), degraded filaments (18.5%), *Eomycetopsis* (8.3%), *Gunflintia* (7.2%), *Obruchevella* (6.4%), possible green algae (4.7%) and unnamed thin filaments (width < 0.5μm, 2.0%) (Table 1, Fig. 4). Rare occurrence of *Eoentophysalis* (1.9%), *Heliconema* (0.7%), and *Gloeodiniopsis* (0.7%) were also observed. In general, microfossils appear to be randomly distributed in the plane of the thin section (Fig. 2). The exception to this general impression occurs near cracks where post-depositional alteration has removed any recognizable microfossils. The generally uniform distribution of all microfossil types in the thin section also suggests their pelagic provenance from the water column, as opposed to them being of benthic origin, where microbial mat type layering would be expected. There is indication for bacterial cells that actively induce biomineralization may be preferentially preserved (Couradeau et al., 2012; Cosmidis et al., 2013) so the microbial community composition that we report here may not necessarily reflect an accurate picture of the original microbial community composition. Furthermore, the microbial community composition is likely to have evolved from sedimentation through the various stages of diagenesis.

4.1.1 Spheroidal microfossils

Myxococcoides. *Myxococcoides* is the dominant taxon in the examined slides (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) commonly forming dense clusters set in a matrix of cryptocrystalline apatite and finely disseminated organic matter (She et al., 2013). The colonies, with diameters generally around 50

1 μm and sometimes up to 200 μm , may comprise a few to hundreds of single-walled spheroidal
2 individuals (Fig. 3 a-b). Measurements of over 400 cell diameters ranged from 4 to 13 μm , with a
3 mean of 7.5 μm ($\sigma=1.5$) (Fig. 4b). This represents the typical 2-D projections of these 3-D cells
4 cut in a range of 2-D planes and directions. Thickness of the cell walls is around 0.5-1.0 μm .
5 Neither enclosing sheath nor internal structures were observed. Cells appear to be geometrically
6 unordered. Possibly dividing cells were occasionally observed (Fig. 3c). These resemble
7 *Myxococcoides minor* as reported from the Bitter Springs Formation of Central Australia (Schopf,
8 1968), the Belcher Group of Canada (Hofmann, 1976), the Kheinjua Formation of Northern India
9 (Kumar and Srivastava, 1995), and the Chichkan Formation of South Kazakhstan (Fig. 3d)
10 (Sergeev and Schopf, 2010).

11 *Eoentophysalis*. Encapsulated colonial spheroids are rare in the Yichang phosphorites. They
12 are characterized by “pigmented” spheroids (cell-like units) encapsulated in relatively thick
13 envelope (Fig. 5a-d). The spheroids may be solitary, in pairs (Fig. 5b and c), in tetrads (Fig. 5d),
14 or in irregular clusters. The cell-like units are spheroidal, ellipsoidal, or subpolyhedral and are 10
15 to 15 μm across, similar to the material described from the Chichkan Formation in Kazakhstan by
16 Sergeev and Schopf (2010). Envelopes are generally around 2 μm in thickness, and multi-
17 laminated textures are occasionally visible (Fig. 5b).

18 *Gloeodiniopsis*. Only a few occurrences were observed for this taxon. The spheroidal cells
19 are solitary, and encompassed by a thick, prominent, distinctly laminated sheath (Fig. 5e). The
20 cells are approximately 6 μm in diameter, and the surrounding sheath is 4 μm in thickness. Dark
21 organic matter occupies almost the entire internal space of the cells, whereas the enclosing
22 sheaths are pinkish yellow and are composed of 4 to 5 concentric layers of uncertain composition.
23 A fuzzy outer envelope is vaguely visible in some specimens. These microfossils closely
24 resemble the species *Gloeodiniopsis lamellosa* reported in Schopf (1968).

4.1.2 Filamentous microfossils

Relatively well preserved specimens include non-septate *Eomycetopsis* and *Gunflintia*, the helically coiled filaments *Obruchevella* and *Heliconema*, a possible green alga, and *Microcoleus*-like filaments (Fig. 6). Other more degraded filaments precluded taxonomic assignment (e.g., Fig. 7g).

Eomycetopsis. *Eomycetopsis* forms non-septate filaments that are generally 2-5 μm in width and can be straight to moderately sinuous, occasionally forming intertwined populations. The majority of elongate phosphate granules contain *Eomycetopsis* (Fig. 6a), and these appear to represent microbial mat fragments. In other cases, however, they tend to colonize around clusters of feldspars or inner cores of phosphate granules (She et al., 2013), reflecting what seems to be accretionary growth of granules which were in the water column. Most commonly, *Eomycetopsis* occurs together in mixed populations of coccoids or septate filaments in the same granules.

Gunflintia. These filaments (tubes) are slender, unbranched, and commonly slightly curved. They can be over 100 μm long and 0.5-1.5 μm across (Fig. 6b). Although many appear to be septate, apparent crosswalls are mostly likely degradational artifacts. These specimens are similar to *Gunflintia minuta* as reported from the Gunflint Formation (Barghoorn and Tyler, 1965; Strother and Tobin, 1987), the Duck Creek Formation (Knoll et al., 1988), and elsewhere in the Doushantuo Formation (Zhongying, 1982). *Gunflintia* is the only taxon that occurs not only in the granules but in the inter-granular cement as well. The microfossils may appear to be aligned concentrically or randomly inside the granules. Others are clearly parallel to or penetrate the laminae of early diagenetic cement (Fig. 6c). Such populations appear to represent a later generation of microorganisms that were actively growing during early diagenesis.

Coiled filaments *Obruchevella* and *Heliconema*. Helically coiled filaments resembling extant *Spirulina* were frequently observed (Fig. 6d and e). They may be solitary or form clusters. The

1 filaments are tube-like and coil around an open-center that forms closely adjoining whorls. The
2 cross section of the tube is round, 2-3 μm in diameter (Fig. 6e). The coiled structure is 5-10 μm in
3 diameter. Filaments are non-septate, with smooth or slightly granular surface texture. The long
4 axes of the coils are straight or slightly bent. They are assigned as *Obruchevella*, a well-known
5 cyanobacterial genus in the Neoproterozoic-Cambrian phosphorite deposits of India, China and
6 Russia (Sergeev and Schopf, 2010). Another type of coiled filament distinguished from
7 *Obruchevella* by its loosely adjoining whorls can be assigned to *Heliconema* (Fig. 6f).

8 Possible green algae. These uniseriate filaments are generally more degraded than their non-
9 septate counterparts. Cells are cylindrical, 27-36 μm long and 10-13 μm across. They are
10 characterized by a three layered structure, a thin but prominent, and brown colored crust (cell
11 wall), a thick colorless mantle, and an irregular black core that might represent residue of
12 degraded or collapsed cytoplasm (Fig. 6g and h). We consider them to be chlorophytes, although
13 other simple filamentous eukaryotic algae (e.g. Xanthophyta, brown algae) cannot be ruled out.

14 *Microcoleus*-like filaments. In the cherty dolomicrite sample YG0914, unlike in the
15 phosphorites, only a few filamentous microfossils were observed. Here, filaments commonly
16 occur as interconnected bundles. Individual trichomes are 8-10 μm in diameter and appear to be
17 multi-laminated (Fig. 6i). Both longitudinal and transverse sections were observed. Fig. 6i shows
18 a transverse section of a bundle of filaments, which are connected with neighboring filaments by
19 very thin "strings". These resemble the filament bundles reported by Awramik (1985) from the
20 Doushantuo Formation in the Yangtze Gorges. They bear some similarity to the extant
21 oscillatoriacean cyanobacterium *Microcoleus*.

22 4.2 State of preservation

1 The Doushantuo Formation in South China, as a whole, is known to be nearly
2 unmetamorphosed or locally experienced only lower greenschist facies metamorphism. The very
3 low crystallinity of the phosphorites (She et al., 2013) and the preservation of abundant
4 microfossils in varying states of apparent decay, attest as well to the low grade thermal evolution
5 of the studied samples. This is consistent with an estimated maximum burial depth of 4 km (Jiang
6 et al., 2006; Bristow et al., 2009) and maximum peak metamorphic temperatures of 220°C - 360°C
7 calculated using Raman thermometry (She et al., 2013). As shown in our previous study, the
8 phosphorites likely experienced a complex diagenetic history including syngenetic
9 phosphatization, microbial sulfate reduction, albitization, silicification and later carbonatization
10 (She et al., 2013).

11 Microfossils are generally poorly preserved, although exceptionally well preserved
12 individuals are were observed. Degraded microfossils reflect both structural modification and
13 compositional alteration. It is known that diagenetic alteration does not alter all fossils to the
14 same degree (e.g., Knoll et al., 1988). In the Doushantuo samples, the best preserved microfossils,
15 which retain fine structural details, appear to be brown or dark brown (Fig. 3b, Fig. 6e and Fig.
16 7a), a color similar to but darker than that of the enclosing phosphatic matrix. More degraded
17 specimens, however, can be yellow, black, or opaque (Fig. 7b-d, f and g). Cells of *Myxococcoides*
18 are commonly degraded, producing an array of degradational variants with similar textures, cell
19 diameters, and colony sizes (Fig. 7b-e). As morphologically simple spheroids, *Myxococcoides* is
20 not significantly affected by condensation. Rather, these microfossils were modified by migration
21 and diffusion of organic matter that almost obliterated original textures and produced organic
22 halos around the cells (Fig. 7b and c). For larger microfossils, however, granularization (Fig. 5a,
23 Fig. 7g) and condensation (Fig. 6g) are more common. Compositional changes were mainly
24 caused by thermal maturation and replacement (e.g., pyritization, Fig. 7d and e).

1 The various states of preservation were further documented by Raman micro-spectroscopy
2 (Fig. 8). Well preserved microfossils in the phosphorites show distinct carbonaceous cell walls or
3 sheath embedded in cryptocrystalline apatite (Fig. 8a and b), whereas degraded specimens display
4 only partially preserved cell structures (Fig. 8c and e). The presence of prominent but broad D-
5 bands (disordered carbonaceous material, near 1350 cm^{-1} , FWHM= $98\text{-}135\text{ cm}^{-1}$) in the Raman
6 spectra (spectra 1-3 in Fig. 8g, Table 2) confirms the overall low degree of thermal maturation of
7 the organic matter. The G-bands (around 1600 cm^{-1} , FWHM= $73\text{-}86\text{ cm}^{-1}$) display comparable
8 intensities to the D-bands but with narrower peaks. The data also revealed compositional
9 alteration of microfossils. For instance, pyritization of *Myxococcoides* and *Obruchevella* are
10 clearly shown on the Raman hyperspectral maps (She et al., 2013). In Figure 8d, the interior of
11 the coiled filament *Obruchevella* is of undetermined composition, as indicated by the absence of
12 a Raman signal, although it appears to contain abundant carbonaceous material under transmitted
13 light (Fig. 6d). In general, microfossils embedded in phosphate matrix have "noisy" Raman
14 spectra and the peaks often bifurcate or multifurcate, probably due to structural degradation and
15 modification of the molecular structure of the organic matter.

16 Microfossils preserved in chert (Fig. 6i and Fig. 8f) near base of the studied section (YG0914,
17 Fig. 1c in She et al., 2013), however, display a distinct spectrum from those encased in phosphate,
18 which is characterized by sharp and intense G-bands and broader D-bands (spectrum 4 in Fig. 8g).
19 The D-bands are centered around 1350 cm^{-1} (FWHM = 133 cm^{-1}) and are generally bimodal with
20 peaks at 1338 cm^{-1} and 1357 cm^{-1} . A shoulder is present on the low wave number side of the D-
21 band. The G-bands are slightly asymmetric and centered around 1613 cm^{-1} (FWHM = 34 cm^{-1} ,
22 Table 2). These features are similar to microfossils from the Bitter Springs Formation (spectrum 5
23 in Fig. 8g), the Gunflint Chert and the Chichkan Formation (Schopf et al., 2005). Given that both
24 phosphate and chert-embedded microfossils are preserved together in the same formation, the
25 distinct Raman signature likely reflects a taphonomically-induced difference of preservation.

Both silicification and phosphatization are capable of preservation at a cellular and subcellular level (e.g., Schopf, 1968; Battison and Brasier, 2012). Given the low thermal maturity of the Doushantuo phosphorites, along with early phosphatization, one might expect a better overall preservational level. The varying degrees of preservation witnessed in our samples, suggest that microbial remains were subject to varying degrees of decomposition before permineralization. This is consistent with the occurrence of early microbial sulfate reduction (She et al., 2013).

4.3 Distribution patterns of microorganisms

Petrographic observations demonstrate that almost all microfossils occur exclusively within phosphatic granules. Three types of granules can be described, based on their dominant microfossil content: coccoid-dominated, filament-dominated, and mixed (Fig. 9).

4.3.1 Coccoid-dominated granules

Populations of coccoids, mostly *Myxococcoides*, occupy considerable space within this granule type (Fig. 9a and b), which accounts for >60% of all documented granules. A single granule may contain more than 7 colonies of *Myxococcoides*, each of which consists of tens to hundreds of cells (Fig. 9a, arrows). The presence of multiple colonies within a single granule appears to be caused either by coalescence of different communities during growth or by disintegration of a single colony. In Fig. 9b, a population of *Myxococcoides*, which contains more than 1,000 cells, accounts for 70% of the total area of its host granule. The colonies may be located in the core or near the periphery of granules. In many cases, the distribution of coccoids coincides with an apparent organic zonation of the granule itself (Fig. 9a-b).

4.3.2 *Filament-dominated granules*

Filament-dominated granules are far less common (< 20% of total) than the coccoid-dominated ones. Two kinds of granules were observed. The first is characterized by concentric or asymmetrically zoned distributions of filamentous microfossils, typically *Eomycetopsis* (Fig. 9c-d). In this case, tangentially oriented and nearly radially oriented filaments form alternating zones, imparting a distinct zonation to these granules (Fig. 9c-d). These textures are similar to microfossiliferous coated grains reported from the Deoban Limestone in Lesser Himalaya (Srivastava, 2006). This alternation of distinctly oriented filaments is a fundamental characteristic of stromatolitic textures (Monty, 1976; Walter et al., 1976), attesting to the probable phototactic nature of the microbes which grew in the developing granules. The concentric texture of most granules parallels that seen in oncolites and oölites which form dynamically in the water column. They are distinctly unlike the patterns expected in a stable, benthic microbial mat, consistent with an accretionary growth model (She et al., 2013).

The second filament-dominated type of granule consists of abundant intertwining populations of (mainly) *Eomycetopsis* (Fig. 9e). In this type of granule, which has only a few occurrences per thin section, *Myxococcoides* is either entirely absent or much less abundant than in the coccoid-dominated granules. These granules are often elongate or irregular in shape. This combination of irregular gross shape with abundantly preserved internal filaments, leads to the suggestion that this type of granule represents allochthonous remains of fragmented microbial mats.

4.3.3 *Mixed granules*

In some granules, both coccoidal and filamentous microfossils are present. Fig. 9f shows a granule that contains a core of *Eoentophysalis* surrounded by a mantle of *Eomycetopsis*. Cells of *Eoentophysalis* are around 5 µm in diameter and characterized by irregular black bodies enclosed in 1-µm-thick clear envelopes (Fig. 9g, triangles). They form a large colony that occupies the entire core of the granule, suggesting that this colony was syngenetic with granule formation. This

core, in turn, is enclosed in a mantle composed entirely of *Eomycetopsis*. The mantle, which is from 16 to 68 μm thick, is somewhat darker than the core, expressing the retention of more preserved organic matter. Orientation of the filaments is mainly tangential but in the outmost part of the mantle many tend to be radially aligned. However, this kind of regular pattern is not especially characteristic of the mixed granules. Various types of filaments (Fig. 9h, arrows) and colonies of coccoids (Fig. 9h, triangles) most often appear to be randomly distributed within the same granules. Nevertheless, these granules also display clear zonation, which implies they grew through the successive accretion of microbial communities in the water column or in the accumulating and progressively mineralizing phosphatic ooze on the local seafloor (She et al., 2013).

4.4 Carbon isotopes

As shown in Table 3 and Fig. 1, the Doushantuo phosphorites have relatively low total organic carbon (TOC) ranging between 0.02 and 0.14 wt%. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values of 5 samples (TP0901, TP0902, TP0903, TP0908 and TP0909) vary from -26.0 to -29.1 ‰ VPDB. Black shale and phosphatic nodule therein contain 0.93 to 1.15 wt% TOC and have $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values of -29.7 to -28.6 ‰. Analyses of powders micro-drilled from different areas in a chert-bearing organic-rich dolomicrite (YG0914) near the top of the first member of Doushantuo Formation yielded TOC of 0.37 to 1.04 wt% and variable carbon isotopic compositions. One chert nodule (YG0914.a) has the lightest $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ of -32.9 ‰, whereas samples of dolomicrite matrix (YG0914.b and d-g) possess relatively heavier and consistent $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values ranging from -28.5 ‰ to -26.5‰. Among these, two samples drilled from CM- rich black areas (YG0914.f and g) in the dolomicrite yielded much higher TOC of 0.78 to 1.04 wt% but similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ranging between -28.2 and -26.8‰.

Total carbon contents of the phosphorites, dolomicrite and the chert nodule are 0.61 to 0.83 wt%, 3.53 to 6.67 wt% and 0.49 wt%, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of total carbon (TC) are -10.0 to -9.8‰,

+1.1 to -3.7‰, and -5.7‰, respectively. Calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of inorganic carbon (IC) are -8.5 to -6.3‰ for granular phosphorites TP0901 and TP0902. As no carbonate minerals were detected using both optical microscopy and Raman spectroscopy for the two samples, the inorganic carbon might largely represent structurally-bound carbonate in apatite. These calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{IC}}$ values are similar to those of authigenic phosphorites from the Phosphoria Formation in North America and in modern deposits in Namibia (McArthur et al., 1980). $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{IC}}$ values for the dolomicrite sample YG0914.d-g, however, are much heavier and range from +6.6 to +7.4‰.

5. Discussion

5.1 Taxonomic affinity of the Doushantuo microfossils

The genus *Myxococcoides* was erected by Schopf (1968) to accommodate simple spheroids without inclusions. Schopf (1968) considered *Myxococcoides* to belong to the Chroococcaceae. Subsequent authors have treated this genus as *incertae sedis*, citing (relative) large cell size and lack of evidence of *in situ* division as evidence for its planktonic habit, a characteristic more often associated with eukaryotes (Knoll, 1982). As Allison and Awramik (1989) point out however, neither cell size nor the lack of evidence for cell division is conclusive for eukaryotic affinity. Unlike the Draken *Myxococcoides* reported by Knoll (1982), the size range of the Yichang specimens (4 - 13 μm in diameters) is much smaller, falling well within the size range of typical cyanobacteria. Moreover, cell division was occasionally observed within the colonies of *Myxococcoides* (Fig. 3c), which is consistent with the preservation of an actively growing colony. Battison and Brasier (2012) described eight morphotypes of microfossils, including *Myxococcoides*-like clusters, from lacustrine phosphate of the ~1.0 Ga Torridon Group, NW Scotland, but these authors cautiously made no taxonomic assignment.

Although, in general, it is not possible to place *Myxococcoides* unequivocally in the cyanobacteria, most of the other major taxa of the Yichang assemblage (*Eomycetopsis*,

Eoentophysalis and *Obruchevella*) are universally considered to belong to the cyanobacteria. *Eoentophysalis* is a common taxon in Paleoproterozoic strata (e.g., Hofmann, 1976; Sharma and Sergeev, 2004) but occurs only as scattered colonies in Neoproterozoic assemblages that are dominated by other organisms (Knoll et al., 1991). Although typically interpreted as mat-builder, the high polymorphism of *Eoentophysalis* colonies and very complicated life cycle (Hofmann, 1976) suggests that these organisms probably occupied a range of habitats. *Eomycetopsis* was clearly an important microbial mat-builder (Knoll, 1982). The helically coiled fossil *Obruchevella* is well known in the Neoproterozoic-Cambrian phosphorite deposits of India, China and Russia (Sharma and Shukla, 2009). The specimens described in this study are similar to *Obruchevella exilis* (Sergeev and Schopf, 2010), a distinctive spirally coiled oscillatoriacean cyanobacterium 2.0 to 3.0 μm in diameter that resembles modern *Spirulina*.

The cyanobacterial affinity of most of the Doushantuo microfossils is also supported by carbon isotopic data. The microfossiliferous phosphorites themselves and associated black shales and dolomicrites all have $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values in the range of -26.0‰ to -29.7‰ VPDB, which is consistent with photoautotrophic carbon fixation via the Calvin cycle, that is, fixation by the enzyme ribulose biphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco) (House et al., 2000). Although $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging from -20 to -35‰ alone do not demonstrate definitively that the associated organisms fixed carbon via the Calvin Cycle (Fuchs et al., 1979; Schidlowski et al., 1983), carbon isotope data in combination with 1) morphology-based taxonomy, 2) microbial community composition, and 3) the phosphatic sedimentary environment, suggest that the fossil organisms fixed carbon by Rubisco and are most likely cyanobacteria.

5.2 A post-glacial cyanobacteria-dominated ecosystem

The Doushantuo granular phosphorites provide us with a glimpse of the shallow marine living world following soon after the Marinoan glaciation. Microfossil assemblages of the phosphorites are dominated by abundant structurally simple coccoids (i.e., *Myxococcoides*). This

1 observation is consistent with the paleontological study in the Zhangcunping phosphorus mine, 9
2 km NW of Taopinghe, which contain abundant *Archaeophycus venustus*, a dominant coccoid
3 form (Zhou et al., 2005). Despite its relatively large size (10-30 μm in diameter), *Archaeophycus*
4 *venustus* was assigned to the *Chroococcacea* (Zhou et al., 2004; Zhou et al., 2005)).

5 Studies of the Doushantuo Formation from other localities in South China, however, have
6 shown that coccoidal cyanobacteria are generally less abundant than filamentous, sphaeromorph
7 acritarchs and multicellular algae (Awramik et al., 1985; Yuan et al., 1993; Yin and Sun, 1994;
8 Xiao et al., 1998; Yin et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2009; McFadden et al., 2009). Although Xiao et al.
9 (2004) noted the general similarity in biodiversity between the silicified assemblage in
10 Doushantuo Formation in the Yangtze Gorges area and the phosphatized assemblage at Weng'an
11 and elsewhere in South China, remarkable differences in fossil assemblages from different
12 localities are still present (Zhou et al., 2005). A somewhat similar assemblage has been reported
13 from the Mesoproterozoic Kheinjua Formation in Central India and the Mesoproterozoic-
14 Neoproterozoic Deoban Limestone in Garhwal Himalaya, but here *Eoentophysalis*, not
15 *Myxococcoides*, is dominant (Kumar and Srivastava, 1992; 1995). Given the sparsity of analyzed
16 assemblages from these granular phosphorites, it is difficult to ascertain to what extent these
17 different assemblages are particularly characteristic of post-glacial cyanobacteria-dominated
18 microbial communities at this time. Nevertheless, the recognition of populations of abundant
19 cyanobacteria preserved in the phosphatic granules from Yichang suggests that these
20 microorganisms were thriving, and probably, dominating in the original microbial community.
21 The presence of abundant stromatolitic phosphorites in the Doushantuo Formation (Xue et al.,
22 1996; Shen et al., 2000) also lends support to the possibility of pronounced bloom of oxygenic
23 photosynthetic microbial life.

24 The origin of metazoans during Ediacaran time is indicated by discoveries of putative animal
25 embryos (Xiao et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2004) and ctenophores (Zhu et al., 2008) from the

Doushantuo Formation. However, all these fossils occur in horizons around 580 Ma or younger which postdate the Gaskiers glaciation. Although Yin et al. (2007) reported large acanthomorphic acritarchs with embryo-like internal structures from the lower part of Doushantuo Formation, their relation to crown-group metazoans remains unclear. In general the putative animal fossils do not act to constrain depositional conditions and they do not constrain the possibility that a cyanobacteria-dominated ecosystem would have existed in the Taopinghe Basin during the earliest Doushantuo period.

5.3 Accelerated phosphorus cycles and phosphogenesis in the terminal Proterozoic

5.3.1 Accelerated phosphorus cycles triggered by post-glacial weathering of continental crust

The ultimate source of phosphorus in the oceans is from the weathering of continental crust which can be significantly enhanced during periods of major climate change. Although Cook (1992) argued against a phosphogenesis-glaciation link for the Proterozoic phosphorites on the basis of an outdated chronostratigraphic framework, many others have speculated that increased continental weathering rates following major glaciations have promoted an increase in riverine delivery of phosphate, which over time would have led to the accumulation of phosphorites (e.g., Papineau, 2010). In many phosphorus mines in Yichang, including Taopinghe and Zhangcunping, occurrence of major phosphorus-bearing horizons started within 5 meters above the base of the Doushantuo Formation, which immediately overlies the glacial deposits of the Nantuo Formation (Zhou et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2009). Furthermore, phosphorus-bearing rocks were observed immediately above the cap dolostone elsewhere in South China, including Weng'an (ca 550 km SW of Yichang) (Xiao et al., 2012), and Mianxian (ca 520 km NW of Yichang) (Xiao and Knoll, 2000). Thus, both stratigraphy and lithology appear to support a genetic link between glaciation/deglaciation and phosphogenesis. Intense chemical weathering triggered by extreme greenhouse conditions after the Marinoan glaciation might have resulted in the wide occurrence

1 of cap carbonates (Kennedy, 1996; Hoffman et al., 1998; Och and Shields-Zhou, 2012) and,
2 subsequently, accelerated global phosphorus cycling.

3 As a well known feature of the South China craton, the widespread Neoproterozoic magmatic
4 rocks (e.g., Li et al., 2003) are expected to be a major source of oceanic phosphorus. High
5 atmospheric temperature and high CO₂ level (i.e., low pH) following the "Snowball Earth"
6 (Hoffman et al., 1998) likely have promoted mobilization of phosphorus in the newly-formed
7 magmatic rocks and elevated flux of nutrients to the oceans which triggered cyanobacterial
8 blooms.

9 *5.3.2 Role of microorganisms in transporting and concentrating phosphorus*

10 Deposition of the Doushantuo Formation began immediately after the Marinoan Glaciation
11 that ended at around 635 Ma (Condon et al., 2005). After deposition of the cap dolostone which is
12 only a few meters thick and lasted less than 3 Ma, a 20~30 m-thick black shale-phosphorite
13 sequence formed in the Yangtze Gorges and adjacent areas. Although phosphate-bearing rocks
14 appear to be present only in shallow water environments, black shales occur throughout the
15 Ediacaran Yangtze basin, even within the carbonate shelf. Many lines of evidence suggest that the
16 phosphorus-bearing Doushantuo Formation formed in a restricted intra-shelf basin (Jiang et al.,
17 2011) in which stratified water column developed (e.g., Ader et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010).
18 Paleogeographic reconstructions of the Doushantuo Formation have shown that enriched
19 phosphorite ore deposits are either distributed in the proximal side or in the distal side of the shelf
20 lagoon whereas rare deposits are found in the open-ocean side of the shelf, which was invoked to
21 argue against a upwelling P source for the Doushantuo case (Jiang et al., 2011).

22 While an upwelling mechanism remains elusive, biological processing, instead, provides an
23 alternative mechanism for transporting and concentrating phosphorus in the ocean. It is widely
24 accepted that the direct source of phosphate in sedimentary phosphorites is from the microbial

breakdown of buried organic matter and redox-driven phosphate desorption from iron and manganese oxyhydroxides (Föllmi, 1996). Sulfur isotopes of framboidal pyrite and organic biomarkers from modern phosphorites have confirmed the important role that microbial sulfate reduction (MSR) plays in the formation of modern phosphatic sediments from the Peruvian and California coast (Arning et al., 2009; Berndmeyer et al., 2012). Sulfide-oxidizing bacteria that metabolize polyphosphates are also known to release orthophosphate into pore waters where it accumulates and leads to the precipitation of apatite under anoxic conditions (Schulz & Schulz, 2005; Goldhammer et al., 2010; Brock & Schulz-Vogt, 2011). When orthophosphate is available in pore waters, some bacteria can influence phosphogenesis with the precipitation of authigenic phosphate minerals, which can cause self-phosphatization where the cells become entombed in apatite preserving detailed intracellular structures and other morphological structures (Benzerara et al., 2004; Raff et al., 2008).

Prior to these processes, scavenging of P from the oceanic waters by cyanobacteria and its subsequent sinking has brought the riverine P to the sea floor and presents an important step in the P cycling. Furthermore, our recent study of the Doushantuo granular phosphorites suggest that cyanobacteria and associated EPS might have promoted aggregated granule growth and provided nucleation templates for apatite crystallization (She et al., 2013). If this is the case, massive accumulation of phosphorites during the Doushantuo period requires excess accumulation of phosphorous, a situation that would have been accommodated by large-scale blooms of cyanobacteria, which is supported by our observation. Moreover, the carbon isotope composition of organic carbon in the phosphorites, black shales and dolostones is consistent with CO₂ fixation by photoautotrophs utilizing Rubisco and the C₃ pathway. In modern oceanic waters, picoplankton can account for as much as 50% of the primary production (Dawes, 1998). In many modern coastal systems, in particular, primary production is almost entirely a function of the phytoplankton (Dawes, 1998). During the Precambrian, prior to the origin of diatoms,

1 coccolithophorids and modern dinoflagellates, oceanic primary productivity must have been
2 controlled by cyanobacteria.

3 *5.3.3 Further concentration of phosphorus through Fe-redox pumping*

4 Redox-mediated iron-phosphate cycling (Fe-redox pumping) has been shown to be an
5 effective phosphate trap at the redoxcline in the Black Sea (Shaffer, 1986) and was considered as
6 an important factor in both modern and Precambrian phosphorus cycles (Heggie et al., 1990;
7 Nelson et al., 2010). Phosphorus released from organic matter in the interfacial sediments is
8 adsorbed onto Fe-oxyhydroxides in oxic conditions, and is subsequently released from Fe-
9 oxyhydroxides in anoxic bottom waters. The escape of phosphate out of the sediment is prevented
10 by re-adsorption of phosphate onto Fe-oxyhydroxides just above this redox interface. Phanerozoic
11 phosphorite forms across the entire shelf because the ocean bottom is generally well oxygenated,
12 providing ideal conditions for Fe-redox pumping (Nelson et al., 2010) which generally operates
13 within the sediment pore waters (Heggie, et al., 1990). Precambrian phosphorites, however,
14 accumulate only in shallow environment, which reflects distinct oxygenation state of the seafloor
15 (Nelson et al., 2010).

16 Although Fe-redox pumping provides an effective mechanism for the concentration of
17 phosphorus, it alone does not explain how phosphorites eventually formed as it literally prevents
18 the precipitation of phosphate. On the other hand, despite the ability of precipitating calcium
19 phosphate (She et al., 2013), cyanobacteria alone does not easily form phosphorites without high
20 phosphate concentration and therefore, upwelling of deep P-rich waters is often invoked in
21 models of phosphogenesis (Föllmi, 1996, and references therein). A combination of these two
22 models could explain the terminal Proterozoic phosphogenesis in the Doushantuo environment.

23 It is widely accepted that a redox stratified shallow water column likely persisted in the
24 Doushantuo basin (e.g., Ader et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010). The coupling and decoupling of Fe and

P in oxic and anoxic waters lead to the concentration of P below the chemocline. Moreover, it has been noted that spatial and temporal chemocline instability probably occurred in the Doushantuo basin (Shen et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2008), which probably resulted in the upward and downward migration of P-enriched waters. The presence of a ferruginous layer in shallow ocean waters (Li et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2012) may have further enhanced the cycling and concentration of P. In the immediate aftermath of the Marinoan glaciation, high primary productivity caused by postglacial influx of nutrients might have led to consumption of oxygen in the shallow ocean and, consequently, the upward fluctuation of chemocline. This, in turn, could have caused the upward migration of P-enriched waters with cyanobacterial EPS rapidly scavenging the phosphorus and granularization and phosphatization ensuing during syngeneses and early diagenesis.

5.3.4 A phosphogenic model

On the basis of our current knowledge of ocean chemistry and paleogeography of the Doushantuo Formation, we propose a model of terminal Proterozoic phosphogenesis (Fig. 10). In a redox-stratified intra-shelf basin, massive accumulation of phosphorites resulted from post-glacial accelerated phosphorus cycles, which include 1) an increase in riverine delivery of phosphate into the shallow ocean related to enhanced chemical weathering of continental crust (Föllmi et al., 2009), 2) rapid scavenging of phosphorus by blooming cyanobacteria (e.g., Burut- Archanai et al., 2013) followed by "organic rain", 3) remineralization of organic phosphorus through enhanced microbial anaerobic heterotrophy (e.g., bacterial sulfate reduction with increased sulfate availability) along margins of the Doushantuo shelf lagoon (Li et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2011), 4) concentration of phosphorus near the chemocline by Fe-redox pumping (Shen et al., 2000; Cosmidis et al., 2014), and 5) upward migration of P-enriched waters caused by upwelling (Föllmi, 1996) or upward fluctuation of the chemocline and rapid precipitation of phosphate and massive accumulation of phosphorites mediated by cyanobacterial EPS (extra-

cellular polymeric substances) (She et al., 2013). This model explains both the spatial and temporal distribution of phosphorites in the Doushantuo basin. As is shown in Fig. 10, the proximal and the distal side of the shelf lagoon are the most plausible sites for phosphogenesis. Below the chemocline, degradation of the deposited organic matter led to the release of organic matter (OM) -bound phosphorus which was concentrated below the chemocline. The pulsed oxygenation of the atmosphere and shallow oceanic waters (McFadden et al., 2008) led to the variation of the chemocline and formation of the repeated cycles of black shale-granular phosphorite which characterize the lower part of the Doushantuo Formation.

In summary, the Doushantuo granular phosphorites preserve a wealth of information that collectively suggests that oxygenic photosynthetic cyanobacteria likely bloomed shortly after the Snowball Earth and produced significant quantities of oxygen. As a result, the accumulation of atmospheric oxygen paved the way for the subsequent rise of oxygen-breathing metazoans. In this sense, phosphorus cycling bridges environmental, biological and biogeochemical changes in the latest Proterozoic and provides us with a glimpse into the eventful terminal Proterozoic world.

Conclusions

The Doushantuo granular phosphorites and associated black shales were deposited immediately after the Marinoan glaciation. Phosphatic granules display zoned internal structures often associated with microfossils. Correlated in situ micro-analyses of the texture and chemistry of the Doushantuo granular phosphorites revealed primary textures formed by the rapid growth of apatite, during which microorganisms and associated extra-cellular polymeric substances (EPS) have played vital roles (She et al., 2013). Mapping of about 700 microfossils or microfossil colonies in a single thin section illustrates the high abundance of microfossils despite considerable degradation. Main microfossil types include colonies of simple spheroid *Myxococcoides*, encapsulated colonial spheroids *Eoentophysalis*, non-septate sheaths

1 *Eomycetopsis* and *Gunflintia*, and helically coiled filaments *Obruchevella* and *Heliconema*. The
2 size, shape, community composition, and the growth patterns of the microfossils, as well as the
3 carbon isotopic compositions of the rocks, support a cyanobacterial affinity for most
4 microorganisms. Raman micro-spectroscopy data provides useful demonstration that 1) finely
5 disseminated organic matter systematically occur in apatite, 2) most microfossils are composed of
6 organic matter, 3) some microfossils are composed of pyrite mixed with organic matter, and 4)
7 the spectra are consistent with the low metamorphic grade, which is useful to discuss microfossil
8 taphonomy. The abundance and distribution patterns of microfossils suggest that a cyanobacteria-
9 dominated ecosystem might have existed in the Doushantuo Basin. The occurrence of major
10 phosphorus-bearing horizons within 5 meters above the base of the Doushantuo Formation
11 supports a genetic link between deglaciation and phosphogenesis.

12 A new model is proposed to envisage the terminal Proterozoic phosphogenesis, which
13 explains both the spatial and temporal distribution of phosphorites in the Doushantuo Basin. In a
14 redox-stratified intra-shelf basin, accumulation of phosphorites resulted from post-glacial
15 accelerated phosphorus cycles. Enhanced chemical weathering of continental crust led to an
16 increase in riverine delivery of phosphate into the shallow ocean, which might have triggered the
17 acceleration of marine biogeochemical cycles. Subsequent cyanobacterial blooms led to rapid
18 scavenging of phosphorus which was remineralized through microbial sulfate reduction.
19 Phosphorus was then concentrated near the chemocline by Fe-redox pumping. Finally, rapid
20 precipitation of phosphate and accumulation of granular phosphorites were mediated by
21 cyanobacterial EPS. Fluctuations of the chemocline led to the formation of the repeated cycles of
22 black shale-granular phosphorite which characterizes the lower part of the Doushantuo Formation.
23 The feedbacks between enhanced continental weathering, cyanobacterial blooms, accelerated
24 phosphorus cycling and carbon burial thus controlled the terminal Proterozoic marine
25 biogeochemical changes and phosphogenesis.

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13

1 **Figure captions**

2 Fig.1 Slabs of the studied phosphorites, black shales and dolostone. Scales are shown by rulers (in
3 mm). Dashed circles indicate the locations of drill pits from where powders were extracted and
4 analyzed for carbon isotopes. Total organic carbon (TOC) contents and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (VPDB) values of
5 organic carbon are also shown.

6 Fig. 2 Mapping of microfossils in a selected area ($\sim 2.3 \text{ cm}^2$) on thin section TP0901S with
7 different symbols showing locations of each type of microfossil. (a) *Myxococcoides* (219 counts,
8 31.4%), (b) *Eoentophysalis* (13 counts, 1.9%), (c) *Gloeodiniopsis* (5 counts, 0.7%), (d) degraded
9 *Myxococcoides* (127 counts, 18.2%), (e) *Eomycetopsis* (58 counts, 8.3%), (f) *Gunflintia* (50
10 counts, 7.2%), (g) possible green algae (33 counts, 4.7%), (h) *Obruchevella* (45 counts, 6.4%), (i)
11 *Heliconema* (5 counts, 0.7%), (j) unnamed thin (width $< 0.5 \mu\text{m}$) filaments (14 counts, 2.0%), (k)
12 degraded filaments (129 counts, 18.5%). Inset shows the relative abundance of microfossil
13 morphotypes. (For interpretation of reference to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred
14 to the web version of this article.)

15 Fig. 3 *Myxococcoides* and comparison with reported fossils. (a-c) Colonies of *Myxococcoides*
16 *minor* from the Taopinghe phosphorites. (a) An example of most commonly observed colony of
17 *Myxococcoides minor*. (b) Densely-packed *Myxococcoides* setting in darkish mucilaginous
18 francolite matrix. (c) Possible cell division (arrow). (d) *Myxococcoides minor* from the Chichkan
19 Formation, South Kazakhstan (Sergeev and Schopf, 2010).

20 Fig. 4 Histograms showing the abundance of different microfossil morphotypes in thin section
21 TP0901S (A) and cell size distribution of *Myxococcoides* (B). Symbols in A): a, *Myxococcoides*;
22 b, *Eoentophysalis*; c, *Gloeodiniopsis*; d, Degraded *Myxococcoides*; e, Possible green algae; f,
23 *Eomycetopsis*; g, *Gunflintia*; h, *Obruchevella*; i, *Heliconema*; j, Unnamed thin filaments; k,
24 Degraded filaments.

1 Fig. 5 Other spheroidal microfossils from the Taopinghe granular phosphorites. (a-d) Clusters of
2 spheroidal microfossils, representing degraded variants of *Eoentophysalis*. (a) Pigmented
3 spheroids showing internal granularization. (b-c) Spheroids with conspicuous carbonaceous cell
4 wall, some showing multi-laminated envelopes (white arrow in b). Note the paired cells (black
5 arrow in b and c). (d) Spheroids in tetrads (arrow and inset). (e) *Gloeodiniopsis lamellosa* (arrow
6 and inset).

7 Fig. 6 Filamentous microfossils from the Taopinghe phosphorites. (a) Intertwined filaments of
8 *Eomycetopsis*, inset showing enlarged view of the tubes. (b-c) *Gunflintia*. Dashed line in (c)
9 shows the boundary between granule (left) and cement (right). Arrows in (c) indicate a later
10 generation filaments that occur in early diagenetic cement. (d-e) *Obruchevella*, (e) shows a
11 longitudinal section of *Obruchevella* (the overall brownish color is due to oil immersion). (f)
12 loosely adjoining whorls of *Heliconema*. (g-h) Septate trichomes (green algae). (i) Transverse
13 section of *Microcoleus*-like filaments, note the very thin "strings" which connect neighboring
14 filaments (arrows).

15 Fig. 7 Microfossils showing different degrees of degradation. (a) Well-preserved *Obruchevella*
16 *minor*. (b-e) *Myxococcoides* colonies with cell structures partially preserved (b), completely
17 obscured (c), or pyritized (d-e, d: transmitted light, e: reflected light). (f) Granularization of
18 *Eomycetopsis* and *Gunflintia*. (g) Degraded larger filaments, probably of green algae affinity.

19 Fig. 8 Raman images and spectra of microfossils. (a-f) Raman images showing apatite (turquoise),
20 CM (red), quartz (blue), and poor Raman signal (black). Raman scans are made on microfossils in
21 Fig. 5, 6 and 7: (a) from Fig. 7a, (b) from Fig. 6a, (c) from Fig. 7b, (d) from Fig. 6d, (e) from Fig.
22 5c, (f) from Fig. 6i. (g) Average Raman spectra of CM extracted from corresponding Raman
23 images: (1) from (c), (2) from (a), (3) from (b), and (4) from (f). Raman spectrum of chert-hosted
24 microfossil from Bitter Springs (Schopf et al., 2005) is also shown for comparison. (For

1 interpretation of reference to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version
2 of this article.)

3 Fig. 9 Growth patterns of microfossils in the Taopinghe granular phosphorites. (a-b) Coccoid-
4 dominated granule, arrows showing colony of coccoidal microfossils. Insets represent magnified
5 view of microfossils indicated by triangles. (c-e) Filament-dominated granule. (d) Microfossils in
6 the white square in (c), note the alternated layers of tangentially oriented (darker zone) and
7 radially oriented filaments (lighter zone). (e) A granule occupied largely by intertwining
8 *Eomycetopsis*. (f-g) Mixed granule (modified from She et al., 2013). (f) A zoned granule
9 containing abundant coccoidal and filamentous microfossils. (g) Enlarged view of the area
10 marked in (f), showing internal coccoids (triangles) and surrounding filaments (arrows). (h) A
11 zoned granule containing randomly distributed coccoids (triangles) and filaments (arrow). (i)
12 crossed nicols image of a granular phosphorite, the granule in the center representing the same
13 one as is in (h).

14 Fig. 10 Proposed model of phosphorus cycle in the Doushantuo basin, which include 5 steps: 1)
15 enhanced post-glacial riverine influx of P into the ocean, 2) scavenging of P by cyanobacteria and
16 subsequent sinking of OM-bound P to the sea floor, 3) liberation of OM-bound P through
17 microbial decomposition (e.g., MSR, microbial sulfate reduction), 4) concentration of phosphorus
18 near the chemocline by Fe-redox pumping, and 5) upward migration of P-enriched waters caused
19 by upwelling or upward fluctuation of the chemocline and rapid precipitation of phosphate and
20 massive accumulation of phosphorites mediated by cyanobacterial EPS. White arrows show paths
21 of the phosphorus cycle. (For interpretation of reference to color in this figure legend, the reader
22 is referred to the web version of this article.)

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Table 1

Table 1 Counted occurrences of various microfossil morphotypes and their relative abundances

Taxa	<i>Myxococcoides</i> (a) *	<i>Eoentophysalis</i> (b)	<i>Gloeodiniopsis</i> (c)	Degraded <i>Myxococcoides</i> (d)	<i>Eomycetopsis</i> (e)	<i>Gunflintia</i> (f)	Possible green algae (g)	<i>Obruchevella</i> (h)	<i>Heliconema</i> (i)	Unnamed thin filaments (j)	Degraded filaments (k)	Total
Occurrence	219	13	5	127	58	50	33	45	5	14	129	698
Proportion (%)	31.4	1.9	0.7	18.2	8.3	7.2	4.7	6.4	0.7	2.0	18.5	100.0

* One colony of *Myxococcoides* or degraded *Myxococcoides* was counted as 1 occurrence, despite the number of cells.

Table 2 Raman spectral data of representative microfossils in the Doushantuo phosphorites

Raman scans	Microfossil morphotypes	Depth of scan (μm)	G-band position	G-band FWHM	D-band position	D-band FWHM	D-band Intensity	G-band Intensity
TP0901S_a82	Slightly degraded <i>Myxococcoides</i> in phosphorite	4	1592.6	81.0	1334.3	135.4	98	112
TP0901S_a211	Slightly degraded <i>Myxococcoides</i> in phosphorite	8.5	1600.6	83.7	1355.1	112.9	57	64
TP0901S_a73	Degraded <i>Myxococcoides</i> in phosphorite	3	1600.6	85.6	1334.3	115.7	85	91
TP0901S_01	Well preserved <i>Obruchevella</i> in phosphorite	4	1604.9	74.1	1351.1	98.2	273	381
TP0901S_12	Well preserved <i>Eomycetopsis</i> in phosphorite	7.5	1600.6	79.2	1334.3	113.2	69	81
TP0902_17	Well preserved <i>Eomycetopsis</i> in phosphorite	10	1604.6	72.6	1334.9	108.3	81	106
YG0914_03	Well preserved <i>Microcoleus</i> -like filaments in Chert	3	1613.0	34.1	1346.7	133.4	640	1447
YG0914_10	Well preserved <i>Microcoleus</i> -like filaments in Chert	3	1613.0	33.7	1355.3	133.1	79	150

Table 3

Table 3 Carbon isotope data of the Doushantuo phosphorites and associated rocks

Sample No.	Lithology	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TC}}$	TC wt%	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$	TOC wt%	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{IC}}^*$	IC wt%*
TP0901	Granular phosphorite	-10.0	0.83	-28.1	0.14	-6.3	0.69
TP0902	Granular phosphorite	-9.8	0.61	-29.1	0.04	-8.5	0.57
TP0903	Granular phosphorite	n.a.	n.a.	-28.8	0.03		
TP0908	Massive phosphorite	n.a.	n.a.	-26.0	0.02		
TP0909	Massive phosphorite	n.a.	n.a.	-27.1	0.02		
TP0911	Finely laminated black shale	n.a.	n.a.	-29.7	0.93		
TP0912	Phosphatic nodule in black shale	n.a.	n.a.	-28.6	1.15		
YG0914.a	Chert nodule in dolomicrite	-5.7	0.49	-32.9	0.48		
YG0914.b	Dolomicrite matrix	n.a.	n.a.	-27.2	0.37		
YG0914.d	Dolomicrite matrix	3.7	4.23	-26.6	0.38	6.7	3.85
YG0914.e	Dolomicrite matrix	1.8	3.54	-26.5	0.59	7.4	2.96
YG0914.f	CM-rich dolomicrite matrix	2.9	6.21	-26.8	0.78	7.1	5.44
YG0914.g	CM-rich dolomicrite matrix	1.1	6.67	-28.5	1.04	6.6	5.63

* Values calculated based on mass balance.

Figure 1

She et al_2014_Fig. 1

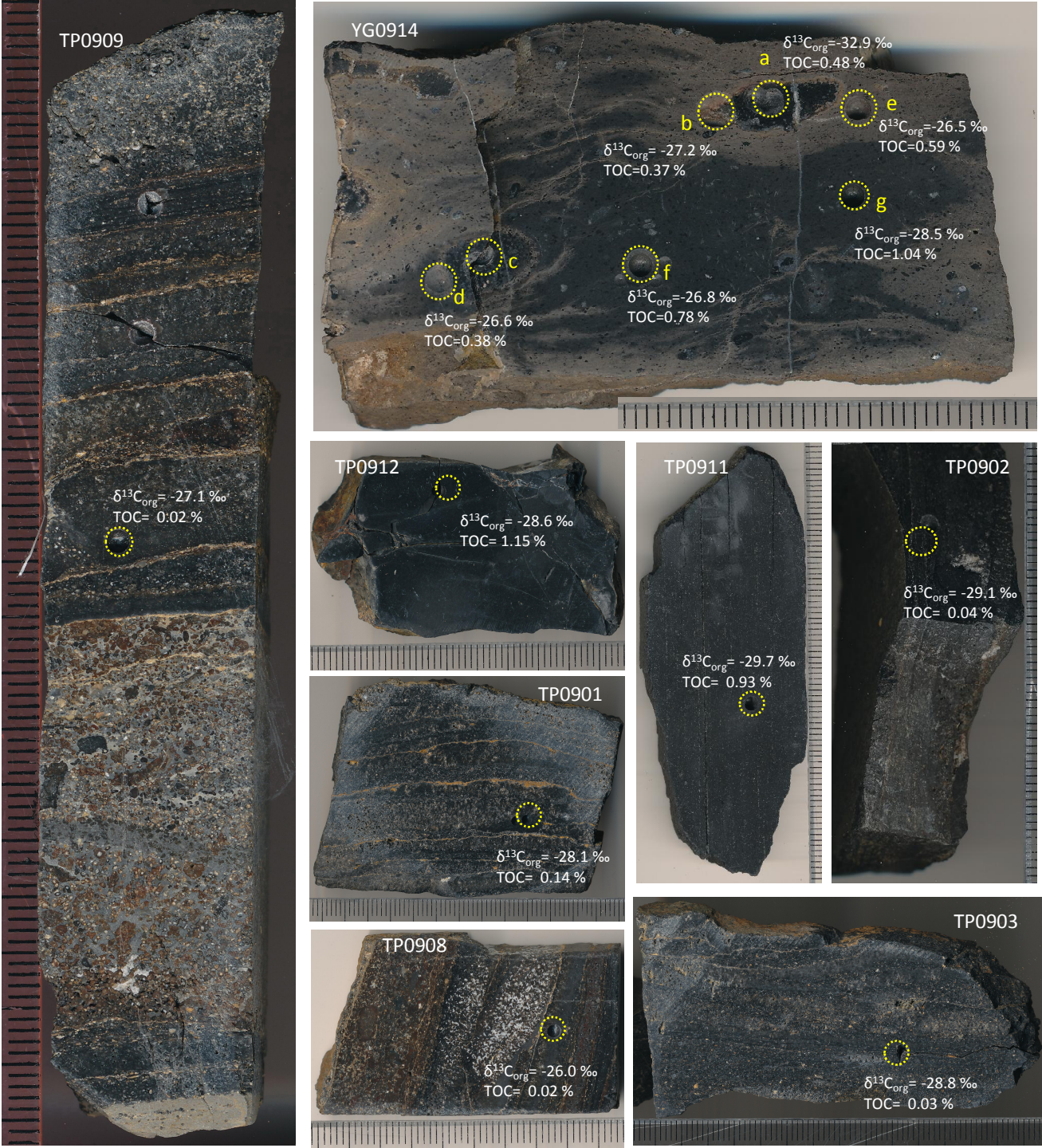


Figure 2

She et al., 2014_Fig. 2

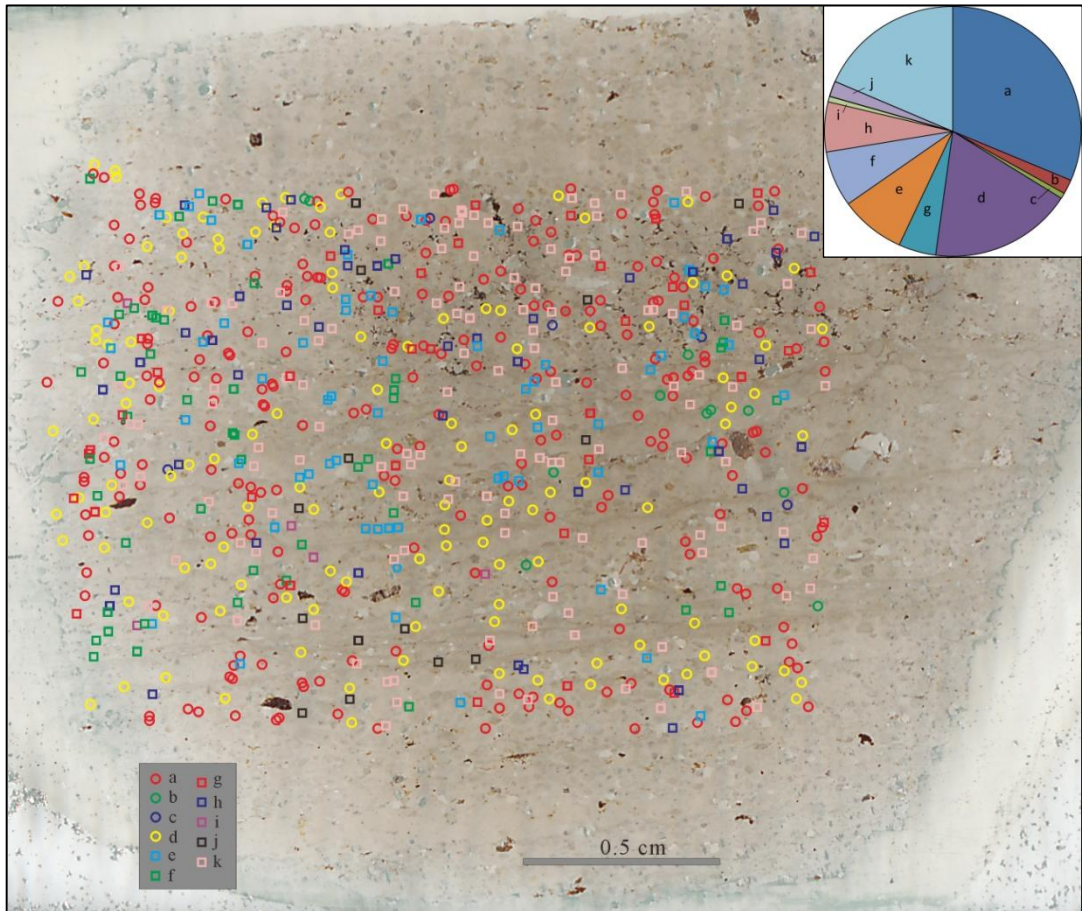


Figure 3

She et al., 2014_Fig.3

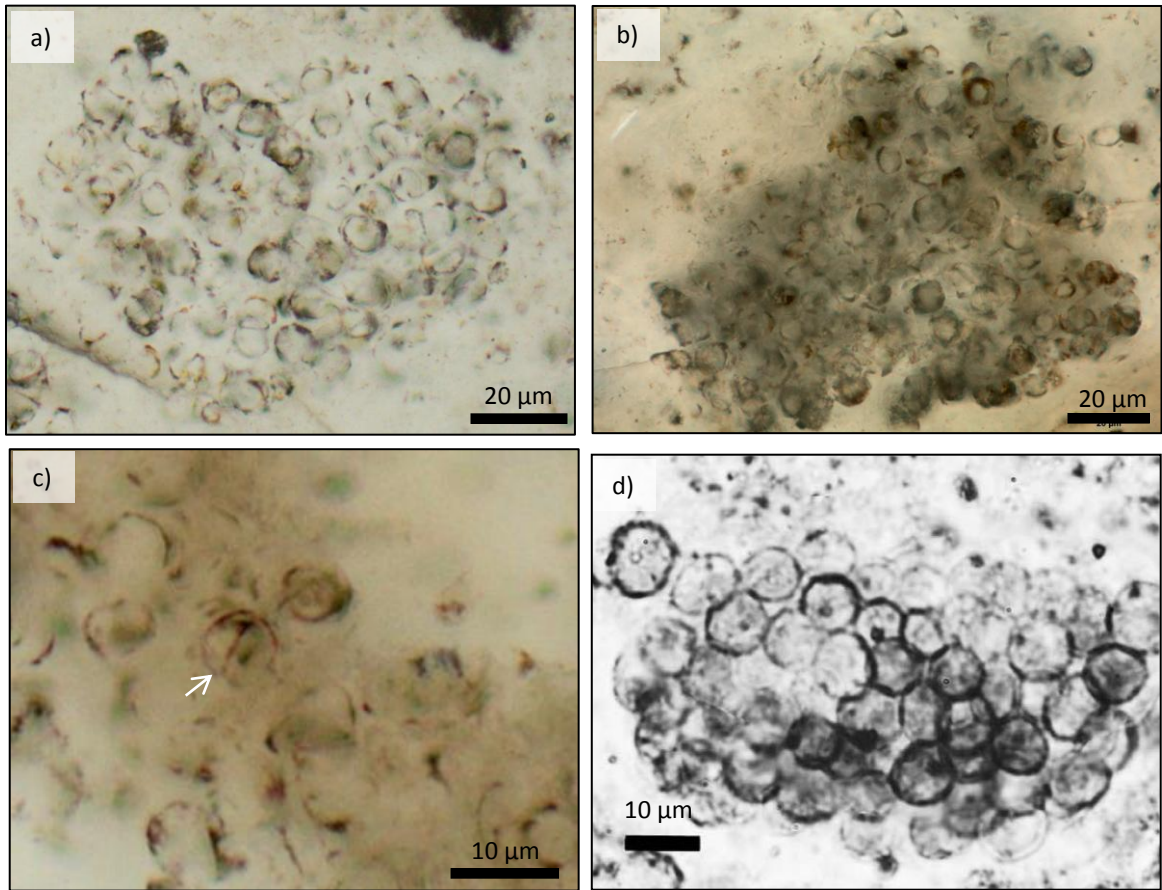


Figure 4

She et al., 2014_Fig.4

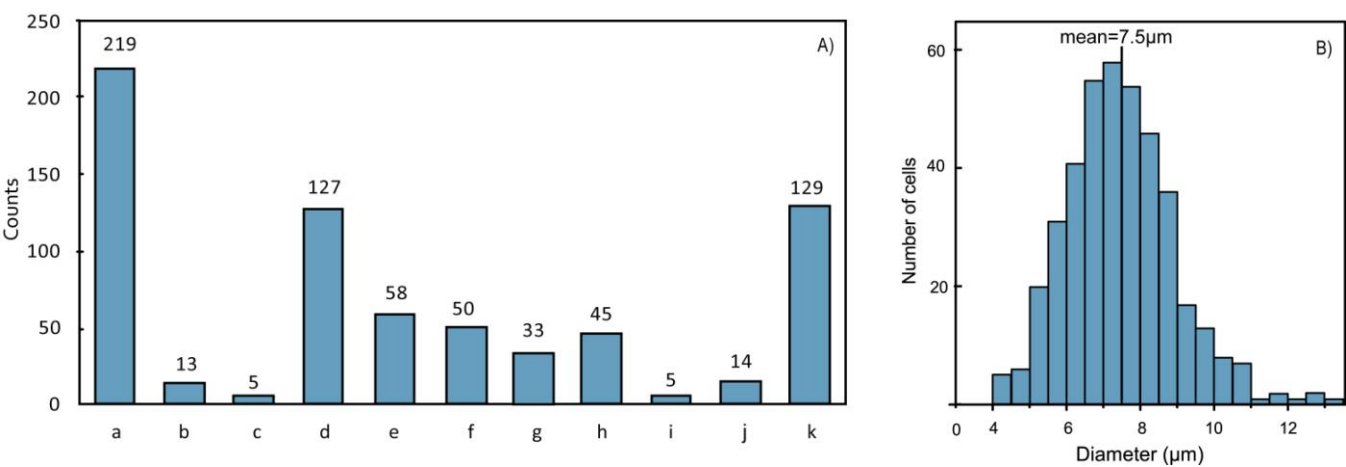


Figure 5

She et al., 2014_Fig.5

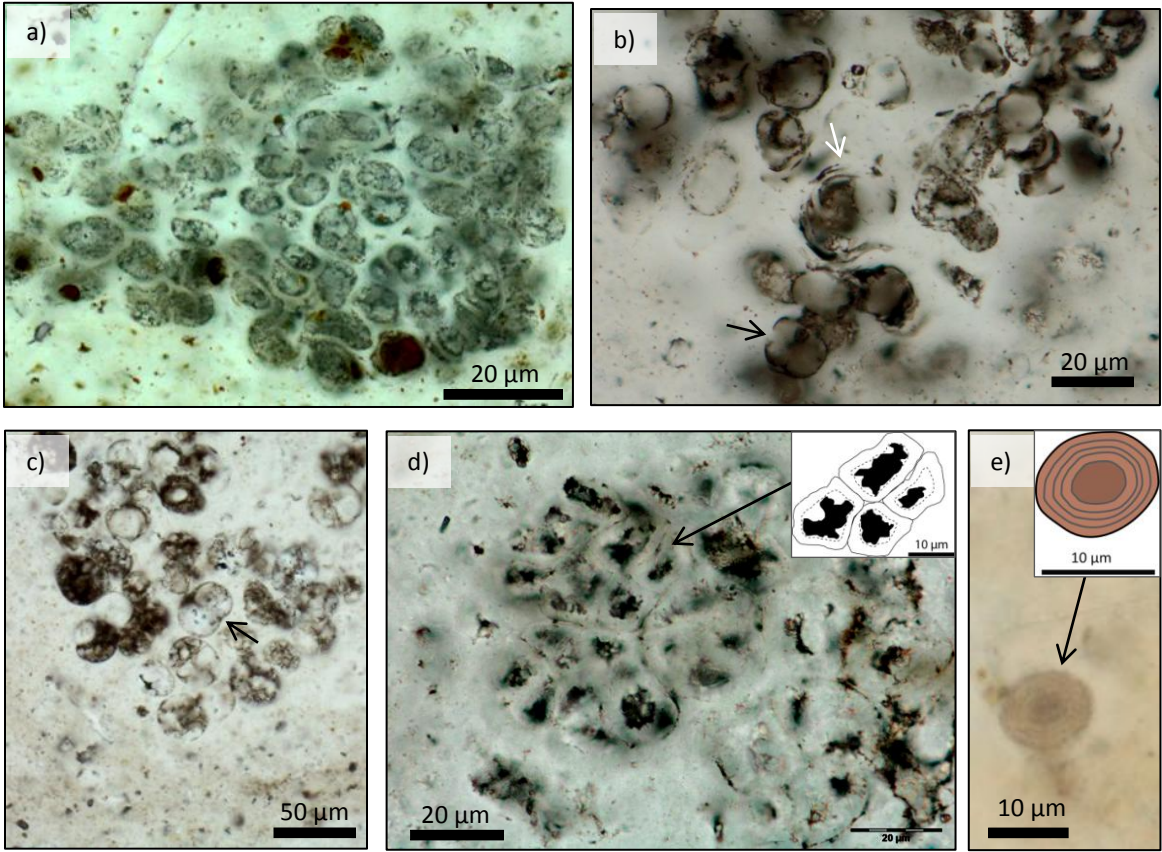


Figure 6

She et al_2014_Fig.6

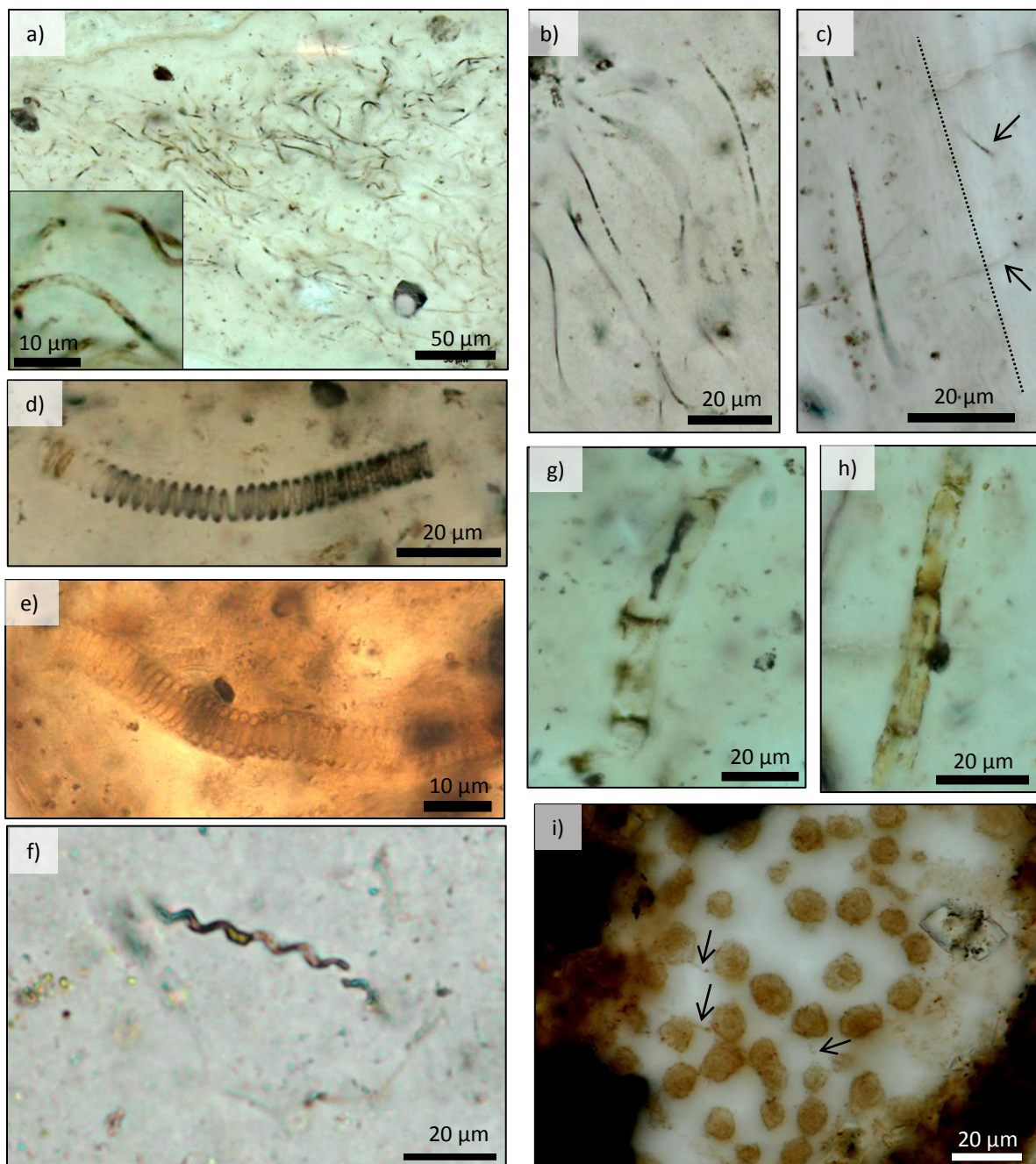


Figure 7

She et al_2014_Fig.7

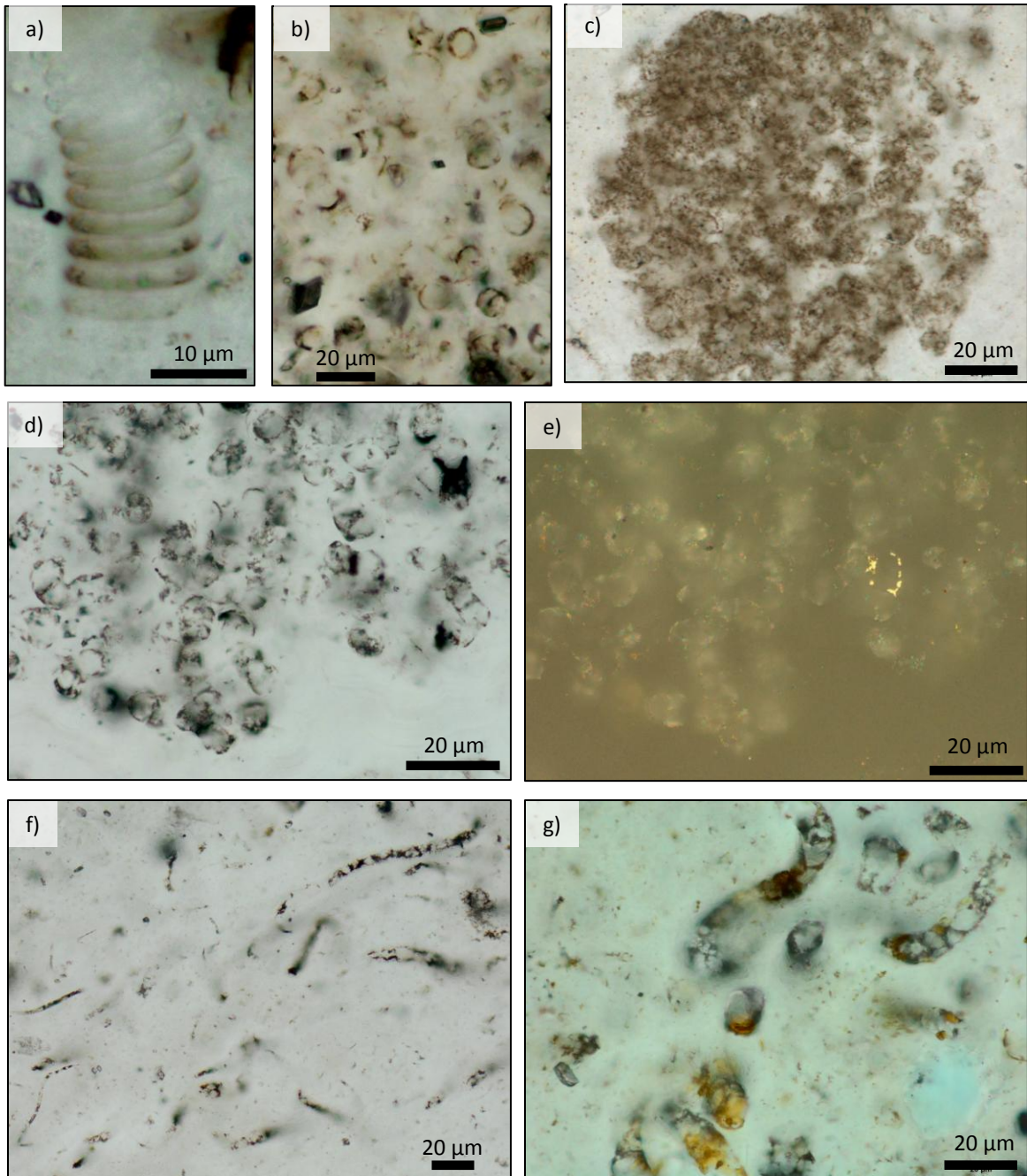


Figure 8

She et al_2014_Fig.8

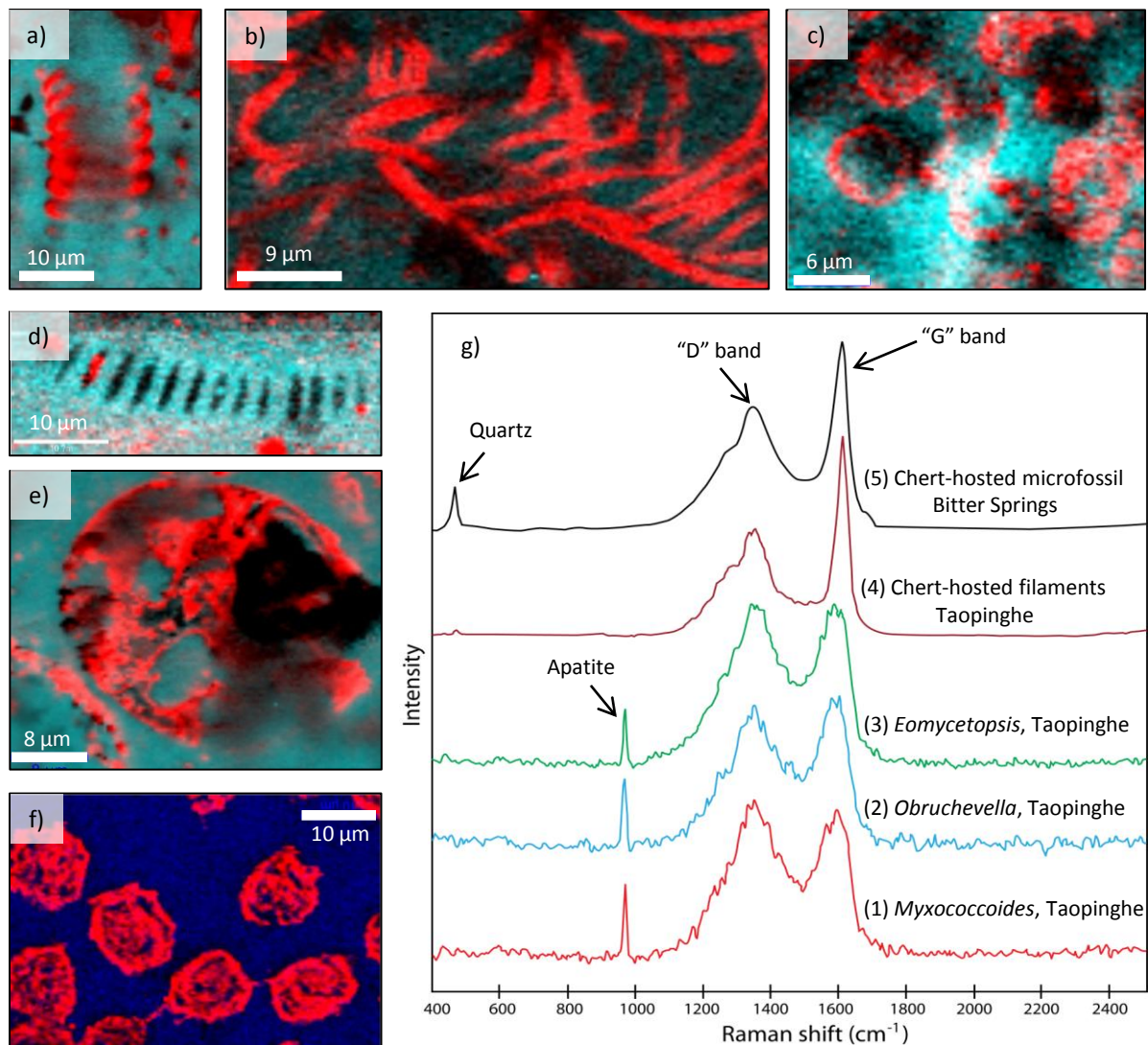
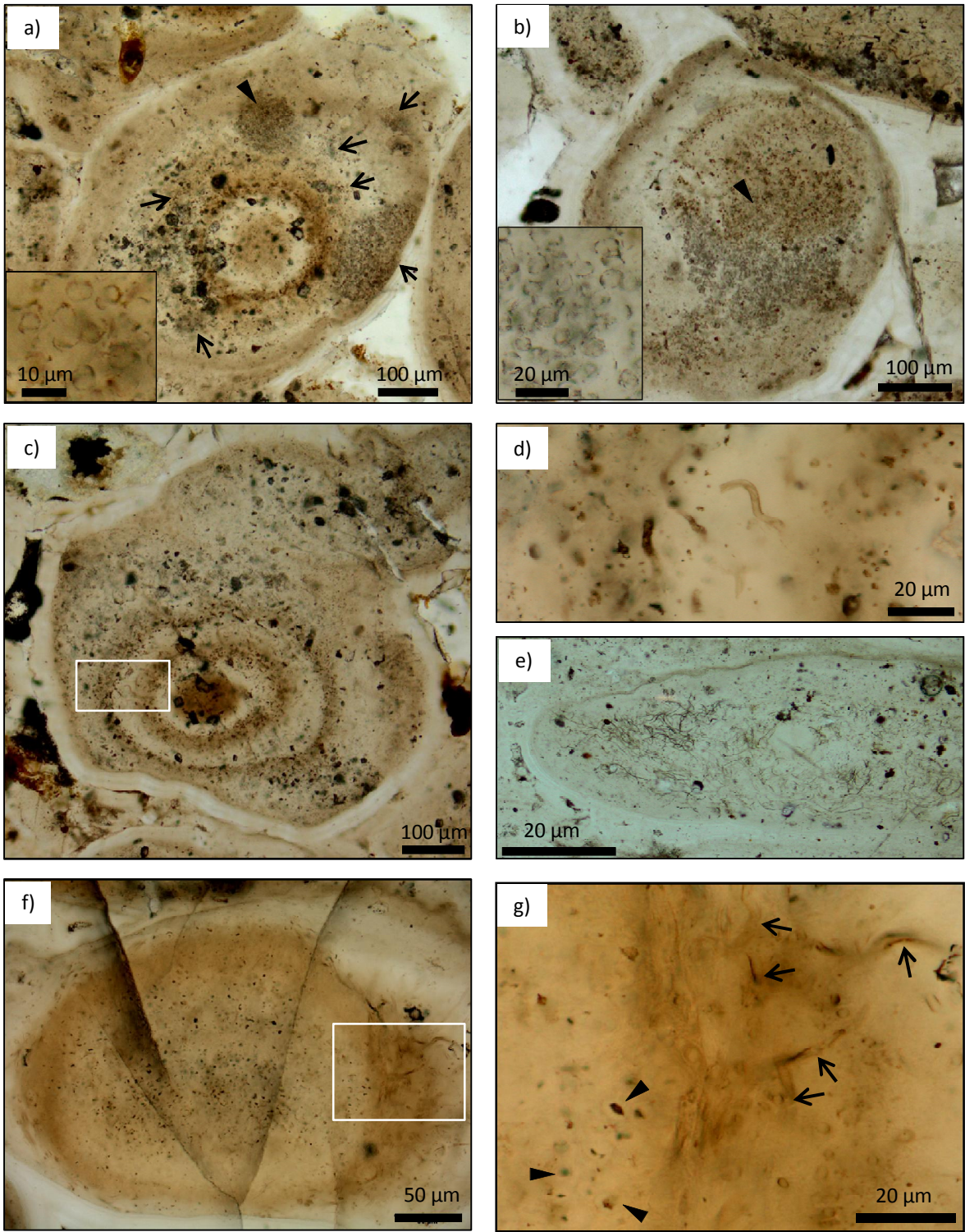
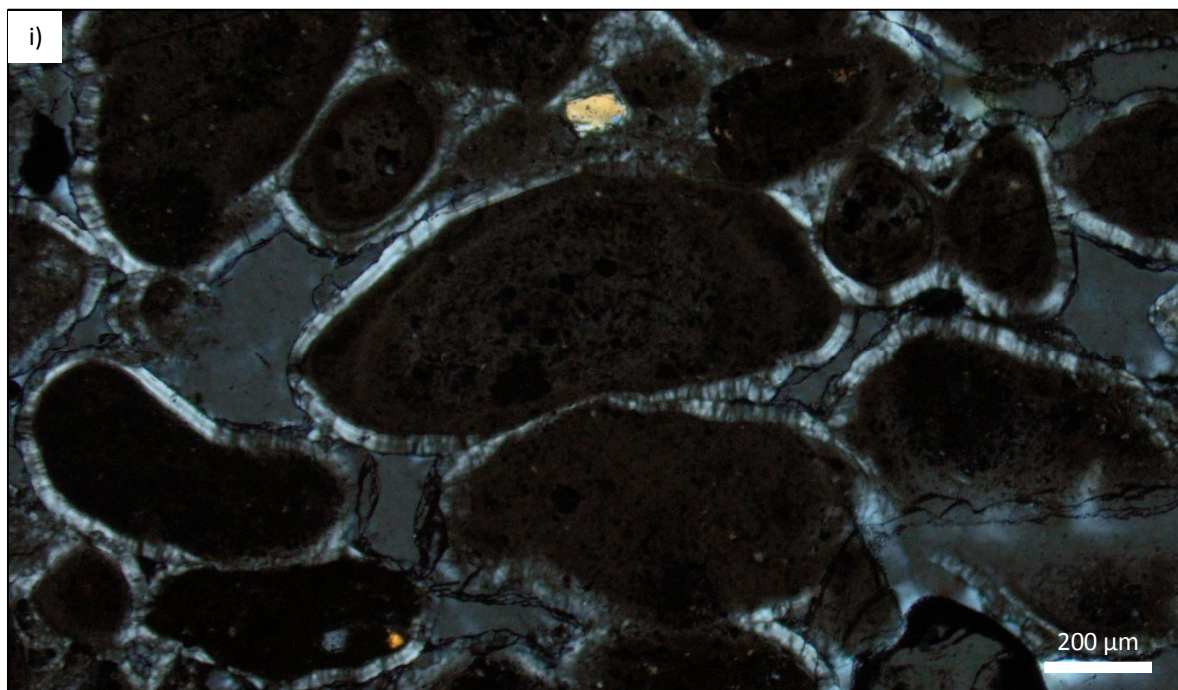
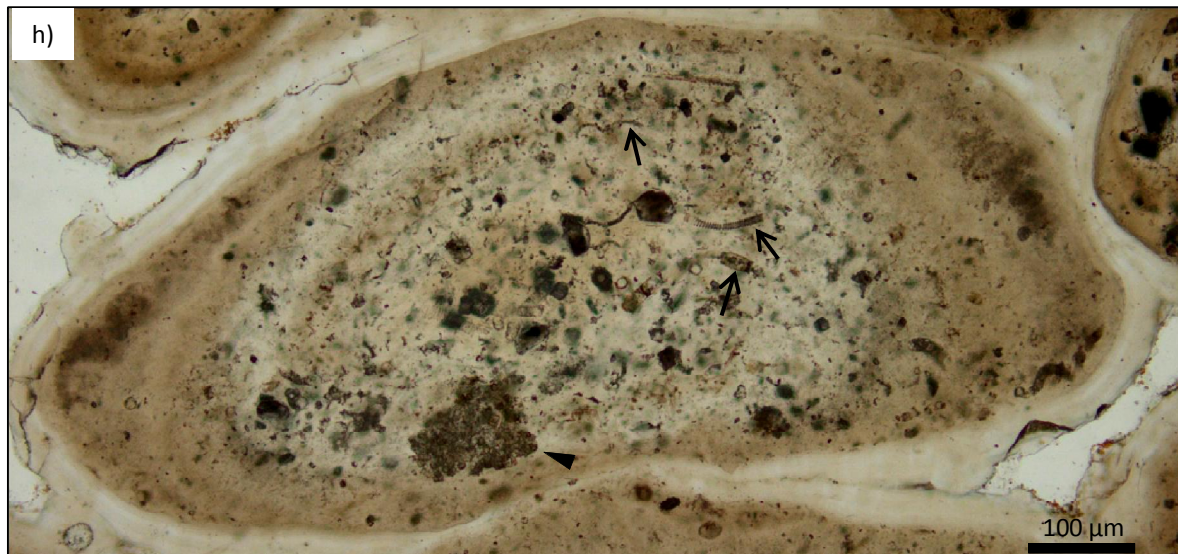


Figure 9

She et al_2014_Fig.9



She et al_2014_Fig.9_continued



She et al,2014_Fig. 10

